



Ru decorated TiO_x nanoparticles via laser bombardment for photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation to methane with high selectivity

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ABSTRACT

The global warming makes us focus on the resource utilization of CO₂. Herein, defective TiO_x nanoparticles with rich oxygen vacancies are synthesized through laser bombardment, and uniform Ru nanoparticles are loaded on the TiO_x (Ru-TiO_x) by the assistance of photothermal reduction. Assisted by the high photothermal conversion efficiency of defective TiO_x (259.3 °C), the photothermal co-catalytic methane yield of Ru-TiO_x reaches 15.84 mmol/g/h with high selectivity (99.99%). After comparing the methane yields in different wavelengths, the synergistic effect between photocatalysis and thermocatalysis of Ru-TiO_x is confirmed. The theoretical calculation demonstrates that the deoxidation active sites of TiO_x and hydrogenation active sites of Ru are responsible for high activity and selectivity. Furthermore, the excellent photothermal co-catalytic activity (about 1 mmol/g/h for cloudless days) and stability under outdoor sunlight are demonstrated. This work confirms that the Ru-TiO_x system synthesized via laser bombardment has practical application value in photothermal co-catalysis of CO₂ hydrogenation.

1. Introduction

The combustion of fossil fuels in huge quantities during the economic development of human society caused the environment and energy crisis. At the same time, the global warming caused by carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions was also worthy of attention [1,2]. It has been reported that the atmospheric CO₂ concentration has increased year by year since 1958 [3] and reached 417 ppm in 2021, which was recognized as the main reason for the greenhouse effect. Among several strategies to control CO₂ emissions, converting CO₂ into value-added chemicals/fuels of methane (CO₂ + 4H₂ → CH₄ + 2H₂O, ΔH₂₉₈⁰ = -165 kJ/mol) afforded a good approach to address the above problems [4,5]. In addition, the efficient use of renewable solar energy gave a promising strategy to cope with the energy shortage issue [6,7]. Therefore, photocatalytic CO₂ hydrogenation to methane was appealing for simultaneously addressing the two issues of global warming and energy demands. However, it was noteworthy that photocatalytic CO₂ reduction faced the challenge of low fuel production rate, which limited its application for industrial scaling [8,9]. Photothermal catalysis had

great potential with high energy conversion efficiency due to the efficient utilization of the full spectrum of sunlight [10–12]. Furthermore, photothermal catalysis could also effectively mediate the activity and selectivity of CO₂ conversion by introducing specific metal catalytic sites [13,14]. For example, Ye et al. demonstrated the application of the photothermal effect for the CO₂ hydrogenation to methane using Group VIII metals [15], especially the Ru on Al₂O₃ exhibited excellent performance and high CH₄ selectivity (99.22%). In addition, Ru-loaded ultrathin layered double hydroxide catalyst (Ru@FL-LDHs) with a CH₄ selectivity of more than 99.3% was also developed for the photothermal CO₂ conversion [16]. Consequently, the presence of Ru not only boosted light absorption efficiency but also provided active sites for CO₂ hydrogenation to improve the methane selectivity.

Besides of Ru sites, the defects of oxygen vacancies in oxides could also serve as the active sites for CO₂ reduction, which facilitated the adsorption of reactive molecules during the photothermal catalysis process [17–22]. For example, Liu et al. investigated the effect of oxygen vacancy concentration in Pd/CeO₂ catalysts on the reduction of CO₂ to methanol [23]. The result demonstrated that Pd/CeO₂ with more

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oxygen vacancies exhibited the highest catalytic performance, owing to the abundantly available oxygen vacancies acting as CO₂ adsorption and active sites. In addition, the oxygen vacancies significantly extended the optical adsorption range, promoting the realization of photothermal catalysis [24,25]. It was noteworthy that the construction of oxygen vacancies was generally achieved through calcination in an inert atmosphere, but the controlled regulation of oxygen vacancies and crystallization of catalysts needed more effort.

The laser bombardment has become an effective synthesis technology for nanomaterials preparation due to the advantages of low cost, scalable, fast, and permitting in-situ processing [26–29]. The metal target materials bombarded by pulsed laser generated the vapor plume composed of target atoms, ions, and clusters, which reacted with ambient gas [30] or liquid molecules [31,32] to grow nanoparticles. For example, a silver catalyst with a high density of stacking faults was prepared by laser bombardment of Ag target in a liquid, the stacking faults induced low coordination number and high tensile strain and then transformed the inactive silver into a highly active catalyst [33]. In this work, a facile and effective method to generate TiO_x nanoparticles with rich oxygen vacancies using laser bombardment of the Ti metal target under the atmosphere of Ar mixed with 0.7 vol% O₂ was designed. Using the oxygen vacancies of TiO_x and the reducing atmosphere, the uniform loading of Ru on the surface of the TiO_x nanoparticles was realized by subsequent adsorption and photothermal reduction of Ru³⁺. The defective TiO_x nanoparticles with enhanced light absorption caused the high photothermal conversion capacity under solar light. Combined with the deoxidation active sites of TiO_x and hydrogenation active sites of Ru, a high yield (15.84 mmol/g/h) and selectivity (99.99%) of methane production from CO₂ through photothermal co-catalysis were obtained. Furthermore, an excellent photothermal catalytic activity and stability of CO₂ reduction to methane using the outdoor sunlight were demonstrated. The synthesis of defective TiO_x by laser bombardment and the application of photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ reduction had a bright application prospect in the field of CO₂ utilization.

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals

Ruthenium chloride hydrate (RuCl₃·xH₂O, 36%) was purchased from Shanghai Macklin Biochemical Co., Ltd. Titanium powders (Ti, 50 µm), Ethyl alcohol absolute (C₂H₅OH) and toluene were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagents Beijing Co. Ltd. All chemicals in this work were of analytical grade without further purification. Ultrapure water (18.2 MΩ) was used in all experiments. Carbon dioxide (CO₂, purity 99.99%), oxygen (O₂, purity 99.99%), and Argon (Ar, purity 99.99%) were obtained from Jinan DeYuan Gases Co. Ltd. Hydrogen (H₂) was supplied with a CEHL-500 Hydrogen generator from Beijing China Education AuLight Technology (CEAuLight) Co., Ltd.

2.2. Synthesis of Ru nanoparticles loaded on TiO_x with oxygen vacancies (Ru-TiO_x)

Firstly, the TiO_x nanoparticles with oxygen vacancies were synthesized. A Ti metal sheet target with a diameter of 13 mm was pressed from 0.8 g commercial titanium powder by rotary tablet press under 10 MPa pressure. The TiO_x nanoparticles were generated in closed quartz container with the atmosphere of Ar/O₂ mixed gas (O₂ content of 0.7 vol%) by laser bombardment of the Ti target with a fiber laser system (LSF20D, Hgtech Laser). The pulse duration of 100 ns, laser wavelength of 1064 nm, the average power of 20 W, single pulse energy of 0.5 mJ, repetition rate of 20 kHz, scanning speed of 2000 mm s⁻¹, and scanning spacing of 0.01 mm in a back scanning mode were performed. After the laser bombardment of the Ti target, the dark blue TiO_x nanoparticles with oxygen vacancies were collected on the top of the quartz container. In comparison, the TiO₂ without oxygen defects was

synthesized by laser bombardment of the Ti target in the pure O₂ atmosphere.

Second, Ru nanoparticles loaded on TiO_x (denoted as Ru-TiO_x) were synthesized. The as-obtained TiO_x powders were dispersed into an aqueous solution of 2 mM RuCl₃ and then stirred for 15 mins to fully absorb the Ru³⁺ ions. After centrifugation, a photothermal reduction process was performed under irradiation by a Xenon lamp (1 W/cm²) for 1 h in the closed batch system under H₂/CO₂ mixed gas (4:1 ratio), and the black Ru-TiO_x catalyst was synthesized. Similarly, the Ru nanoparticles loaded on TiO₂ sample (Ru-TiO₂) were also prepared according to the above adsorption and photothermal reduction methods except for using TiO₂ instead of TiO_x as support.

2.3. Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Cu K α radiation, $\lambda = 0.15406$ nm, Rigaku Ultima IV, JPN) was used to determine the crystal structures. The morphologies and elemental distribution of the materials were characterized by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, HITACHI regulus 8100). High resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) was performed by using a JEM-2100 F instrument with an acceleration voltage of 200 kV. A High-speed video camera (X213, FuHuang Agile Device Co., Ltd) was used to observe the laser bombardment process. The chemical structure analyses of the samples were conducted by XPS (AXIS SUPRA, Kratos). Brunauer-Emmet-Teller (BET) surface area was analyzed by using a Kubo X1000 instrument using the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method with nitrogen adsorption at 77 K. The vacancy defects were determined by electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy (Bruker A300). The UV-Vis absorption spectra and temperature distribution of samples were recorded by a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (UH4150, Hitachi High-Technologies Corporation) and Thermal Imaging Camera (Fotric 226), respectively. X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) measurements at the Ru K-edge for Ru-TiO_x and Ru foil samples were performed at Beijing Synchrotron Radiation Facility (beamline 1W1B station). The Ru content was determined by the Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical Emission Spectrometer (Shimadzu ICPE-9800-OES).

2.4. Photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation tests in the closed batch system

The experiment of photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation reaction was carried out in a 50 mL closed quartz reactor, and in order to maintain the temperature of the chamber, aluminum silicate fiber wool was wrapped around the reactor as an insulating layer. The typical experimental setup was shown in Fig. S1. In typical progress, 5 mg of catalysts were dispersed in 1 mL of a mixed solution of toluene and ethanol (volume ratio 3:7). Then the mixture solution was spread on the surface of a 4 cm² glass sheet and dried at room temperature to form a uniform coating. Before irradiation, the H₂/CO₂ mixed gas (ratio of 4:1) flow was introduced for 30 min to remove the air in the reactor and as the reactive gases. During the photothermal co-catalysis reaction, a 300 W Xenon lamp was used as the light source and heat source, which was irradiated from the top surface of the quartz reactor, giving a power density of 1 W/cm². To determine the temperature of the catalyst under light illumination, the infrared thermography (Infrared Thermal Imaging Camera Fotric 226) was employed. The Photoluminescence (PL) was acquired using microscopic Raman spectrometer (HORIBA LabRAM HR Evolution) with a laser of 532 nm under room temperature. During the 2 h photothermal co-catalysis reaction, the product gas was withdrawn from the reactor at 0.5 h, 1 h, 1.5 h and 2 h, and injected into the gas chromatograph for analysis. The Product rate (CO/CH₄yield (mol/g/h) was obtained by a linear fit of yields through time (0 ~ 2 h).

The product yield was calculated as

$$\text{Product } (\text{CO}/\text{CH}_4) \text{ yield (mol/g)} = \frac{\text{Product } (\text{CO}/\text{CH}_4)_{\text{outlet}}}{m_{\text{catalyst}}}$$

Cyclic stability testing was tested using the same reactor system, after each run of 1 h, 1 mL of the reaction gas was withdrawn and the Xe light was turned off. Before the next irradiation, the reactor was evacuated and filled with the stoichiometric amounts of H₂ and CO₂ (ratio of 4:1). By analogy, the subsequent 10 recycling tests were conducted.

The pure thermal-catalytic performance was tested in the closed batch system. The reactor was evacuated and filled with the stoichiometric amounts of H₂ and CO₂ (4:1). The reactor was wrapped with a flexible electric heating jacket, the constant temperature 276 °C (Ru-TiO_x catalyst).

For the photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation in outdoor sunlight, the 300 mL closed quartz reactor was used and the linear fresnel len (25 cm × 25 cm) was used for the sunlight concentrator.

2.5. Photoelectrochemical measurement

The photocurrent of samples was correspondingly tested by the electrochemical workstation (CHI 760 C, CH Instruments Inc.) with a three-electrode system in 0.5 M H₂SO₄ solution. During the photo-electrochemical testing, the Hg/Hg₂Cl₂ electrode (SCE, saturated KCl aqueous solution) was used as the reference electrode, the carbon rod was used as the counter electrode and samples modified glassy carbon electrodes were used as the working electrodes, respectively. The

working electrode was prepared by the following method: 5 mg of catalyst powders were dispersed in 1 mL of water/ethanol solution (volume ratio 1:1) and then 50 μL of Nafion solution (~5% in a mixture of alcohols and water) was added. After sonication for 30 min until the mixture was well dispersed, 5 μL of the above solution was taken and dropped on the surface of glassy carbon electrode with an area of 0.07 cm². The photocurrent response (i-t) curves were recorded at 2 V vs. RHE in the dark and light with the light irradiation by a 300 W Xenon lamp with a power density of 1 W/cm².

2.6. Density functional theory (DFT) computations

The density functional theory (DFT) using the Vienna Ab-initio Simulation Package (VASP) package was utilized for first-principle calculations [34]. The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) with the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) function was used to describe the correlation effects and electronic exchange [35–37]. For ensuring convergence of the total energies to within 1 meV per atom, Methfessel-Paxton electronic smearing and uniform G-centered k-points meshes with a resolution of $2\pi * 0.04 \text{ Å}^{-1}$ were adopted for the integration in the Brillouin zone for geometric optimization. The effective parameter of Coulomb interaction correction of Ti atoms, U_{eff}, was set as 3.5 eV [38]. The simulation was run with a cutoff energy of 500 eV throughout the computations. Structure relaxation proceeded until all forces on atoms were less than 10 meV Å⁻¹ and the total stress tensor was within 0.03 GPa of the target value.

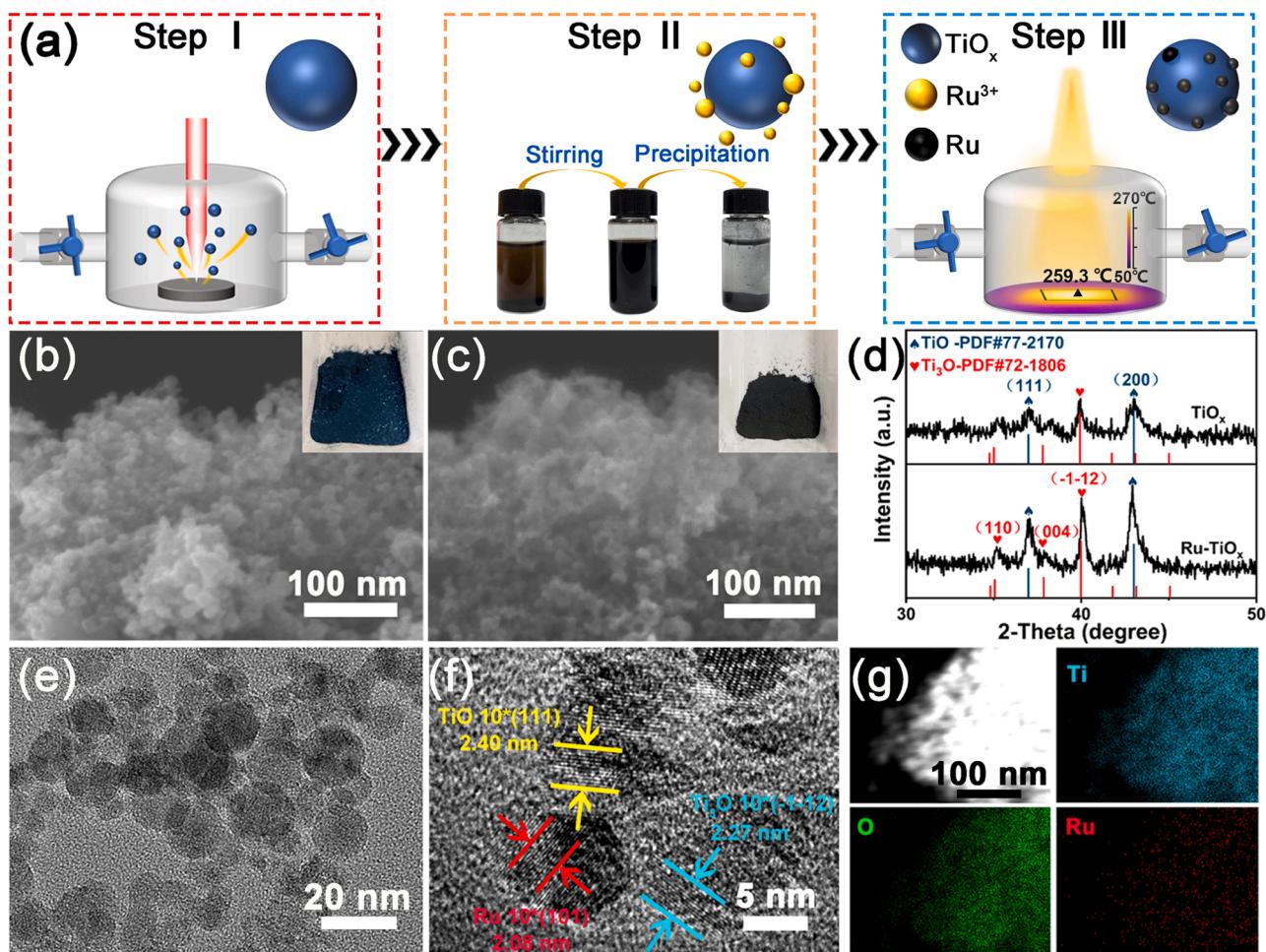


Fig. 1. (a) Illustration of the laser bombardment synthesis of TiO_x nanoparticles (I), the loading of Ru on TiO_x through soaking (II) and photothermal reduction process (III). SEM images and the corresponding optical photograph of (b) TiO_x and (c) Ru-TiO_x. (d) XRD patterns of TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x. (e, f) HRTEM images and (g) according EDS mapping of the Ru-TiO_x.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalyst synthesis and characterizations

The synthesis process of Ru-TiO_x nanoparticles was shown in Fig. 1a. Firstly, the defects-rich TiO_x nanoparticles were synthesized by laser bombardment of Ti target in sealed quartz system under the mixed atmosphere (99.3 vol% Ar and 0.7 vol% O₂). The high-speed cameras recorded the sputtering process of nanoparticles during the laser bombardment, due to the narrow laser pulse width and high peak power (Fig. S2 and Video S1). It was noteworthy that most of the ultrafine TiO_x nanoparticles (5–15 nm) moved towards the top of the container, and the large TiO_x particles (100–200 nm) sank to the bottom of the container (Figs. S3 and S4). Thus, the collected ultrafine TiO_x powder was characterized by SEM in Fig. 1b. The obtained TiO_x powder (the inset of Fig. 1b) was dark blue, suggesting the numerous oxygen vacancies were in the TiO_x nanoparticles. X-ray diffraction (XRD) results in Fig. 1d confirmed that the as-obtained TiO_x nanoparticles were composed of TiO (PDF#77–2170) with the diffraction peaks at 37.1° (111) and 43.2° (200) and Ti₃O (PDF#72–1806) with the diffraction peak at 39.7° (−1 to 12), revealing that the defective oxidation state was formed during the laser bombardment under the anoxic atmosphere. Thus TiO_x was utilized collectively to represent the mixed phase of these two titanium oxides. While TiO₂ composed of rutile and anatase was prepared under sufficient oxygen conditions (Fig. S6). In addition, the molar ratio of Ti/O was calculated as approximately 4:5 from the atomic percentage of each element in XPS results (Table S1). The slightly lower molar ratio of Ti/O compared with that in XRD results was probably due to the fact that XPS is a strategy of surface testing, the oxygen adsorbed on the surface resulted in more O signals.

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Secondly, the obtained TiO_x nanoparticles were dispersed into an aqueous solution of 2 mM RuCl₃ (step II in Fig. 1a). After adding the TiO_x nanoparticles, the earthy yellow Ru³⁺ aqueous solution turned colorless and black precipitate at the bottom was observed. Benefiting from the presence of oxygen vacancies and the large specific area (92.3 m²/g, Fig. S7), the complete adsorption of Ru³⁺ ions on the surface of TiO_x nanoparticles was realized (Figs. S8–S10). The photothermal reduction of Ru³⁺-TiO_x was performed by Xenon lamp under H₂/CO₂ mixed gas in the closed batch system to prepare Ru-TiO_x (step III in Fig. 1a). The infrared thermal image revealed that the photothermal reduction temperature reached 259.3 °C. The optical photograph showed that the color of nanoparticles changed from dark blue to black (inset of Fig. 1c). The SEM image in Fig. 1c showed that the spherical morphology was maintained and the particle size did not increase significantly. The corresponding BET surface area of Ru-TiO_x was 56.2 m²/g (Fig. S7), less than that of TiO_x, due to the loading of Ru nanoparticles on the surface of TiO_x. XRD pattern indicated that the phases of Ru-TiO_x did not change from that of TiO_x (Fig. 1d) owing to the low Ru loading amount of 1.77 wt%, which was determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP) (Table. S2).

In order to further demonstrate the successful reduction of Ru³⁺ to metal Ru, the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed to characterize the structure of Ru-TiO_x. As shown in Fig. 1e, TEM image of Ru-TiO_x showed that the legible nanoparticles were spherical morphology and average diameter was less than 20 nm. The lattice fringes of 0.22 nm and 0.24 nm were captured by HRTEM and attributed to the (−1 to 12) crystal plane of Ti₃O and the (111) crystal plane of TiO, respectively. Meanwhile, the lattice fringe of 0.20 nm attributed to (101) crystal plane of Ru was also detected in the HRTEM images (Figs. 1f and S11), demonstrating the successful Ru loading. The small particle size of prepared Ru nanoparticles could be attributed that the oxygen vacancies in TiO_x acted as anchoring sites for Ru nanoparticles loading with enhanced metal-support interaction, preventing the nanoparticles from agglomeration. After statistical analysis and a

frequency distribution histogram plot (Fig. S5) was generated, the diameter size of Ru nanoparticles covered the range of 1–7 nm, and there were about 61% of diameter sizes in the range of 2–3.5 nm. The formation of Ru nanoparticles with such a small particle size confirmed that Ru nanoparticles occupied the reactive oxygen vacancy sites during synthesis process.

The energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) elemental mapping in Fig. 1g exhibited the homogeneous distribution of the Ti, O and Ru on the nanoparticles, further implying the successful synthesis of Ru-TiO_x.

To gain more insight into surface chemical state and electronic structure of Ru-TiO_x, XPS was further examined (Fig. 2a–c). The Ti 2p spectrum (Fig. 2a) of TiO_x prepared by laser bombardment could be deconvolved into three main components, which were composed of Ti⁴⁺, Ti³⁺, and Ti²⁺ as determined by the fitting of the curve at 458.3 eV, 456.2 eV and 454.2 eV, respectively [39]. After the loading of Ru nanoparticles, only XPS peaks of Ti⁴⁺ at 458.47 eV and Ti³⁺ at 456.81 eV could be detected. The increased peak intensity of Ti⁴⁺ and decreased Ti³⁺ intensity of Ru-TiO_x were attributed to the reduction of Ru³⁺, which consumed and stabilized oxygen vacancies in the photothermal reduction process of Ru-TiO_x. While for the TiO₂ prepared by laser bombardment under the oxygen-enriched environment, the high-resolution Ti 2p spectrum could only be deconvolved into two peaks of Ti 2p_{3/2} at 458.4 eV and Ti 2p_{1/2} at 464.1 eV for Ti⁴⁺, implying that there were few oxygen vacancies. As for the O 1 s XPS spectra depicted in Fig. 2b, three peaks at 529.8 eV, 531.1 eV, and 533.2 eV, corresponding to the lattice oxygen (O_L), oxygen vacancy (O_V), and adsorbed oxygen (O_{ad}) were detected for TiO_x. After loading Ru onto TiO_x, the peak of oxygen vacancy (O_V) became less obvious, which was consumed in the photothermal reduction process [40,41]. The O 1 s spectrum of TiO₂ showed that the main O_L peak and a negligible peak of O_V were observed, due to the oxygen-enriched preparation process. The peak of Ru 3d_{3/2} appeared on the same binding energy region as C 1 s peak, thus it would influence the judgment of Ru 3d_{3/2} peak. As shown in Fig. 2c, the Ru 3d spectrum of Ru-TiO_x showed that the binding energy of Ru 3d_{5/2} peak at 279.6 eV and Ru 3d_{3/2} peak at 283.4 eV attributed to Ru⁰. The appearance of Ru⁰ implied the successful photothermal reduction of Ru ions by reductive atmosphere with the assistance of low valent titanium in defective TiO_x. All of the aforementioned results proved the successful preparation of the rich-defective TiO_x precursor and the successful loading of Ru on TiO_x. The oxygen vacancy concentration of TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x, and TiO₂ were evaluated by electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) [42,43]. As shown in Fig. 2d, compared to TiO_x, the reduced signal of Ru-TiO_x at g= 2.004 was observed, implying a partial depletion of oxygen vacancies during the loading Ru process. In contrast, the EPR result for TiO₂ showed no EPR signal at g= 2.004, demonstrating that the TiO₂ sample prepared under oxygen-enriched atmosphere contained few oxygen vacancies.

The local coordination structures and valence states of Ru-TiO_x were further determined by X-ray absorption near-edge structure (XANES) spectrum and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectra. The Ru K-edge XANES spectra (Fig. 2e) showed that the Ru-TiO_x was similar to Ru foil. Combined with the Fourier transform of K³-weighted Ru EXAFS (FT-EXAFS) spectra in Fig. 2f, a characteristic peak for Ru–Ru scattering was detected in Ru-TiO_x, demonstrating that Ru⁰ was mainly present in the material. Meanwhile, it was noteworthy that when enlarging the edge energy of Ru foil and Ru-TiO_x (inset of Fig. 2e), the K-edge binding energy of Ru-TiO_x was slightly larger than that of Ru foil, indicating that the average valence state of Ru-TiO_x was higher. The Ru K-edge WT-EXAFS of the Ru foil and Ru-TiO_x illustrated in Fig. 2g–h displayed that a significant WT signal was detected in the K (~10 Å^{−1}) and R+α (~2.5 Å) peak, which corresponded to Ru–Ru bonds, also confirming the successful reduction and decoration of Ru nanoparticles on TiO_x. In addition, the weak Ru–O bond signal of Ru-TiO_x could also be observed. This Ru–O bond was not attributed to RuO₂, while it was attributed to the Ru–O binding between Ru⁰ and substrate TiO_x, this was in agreement with the Ru-TiO_x model in Fig. S12 [44,45]. The difference

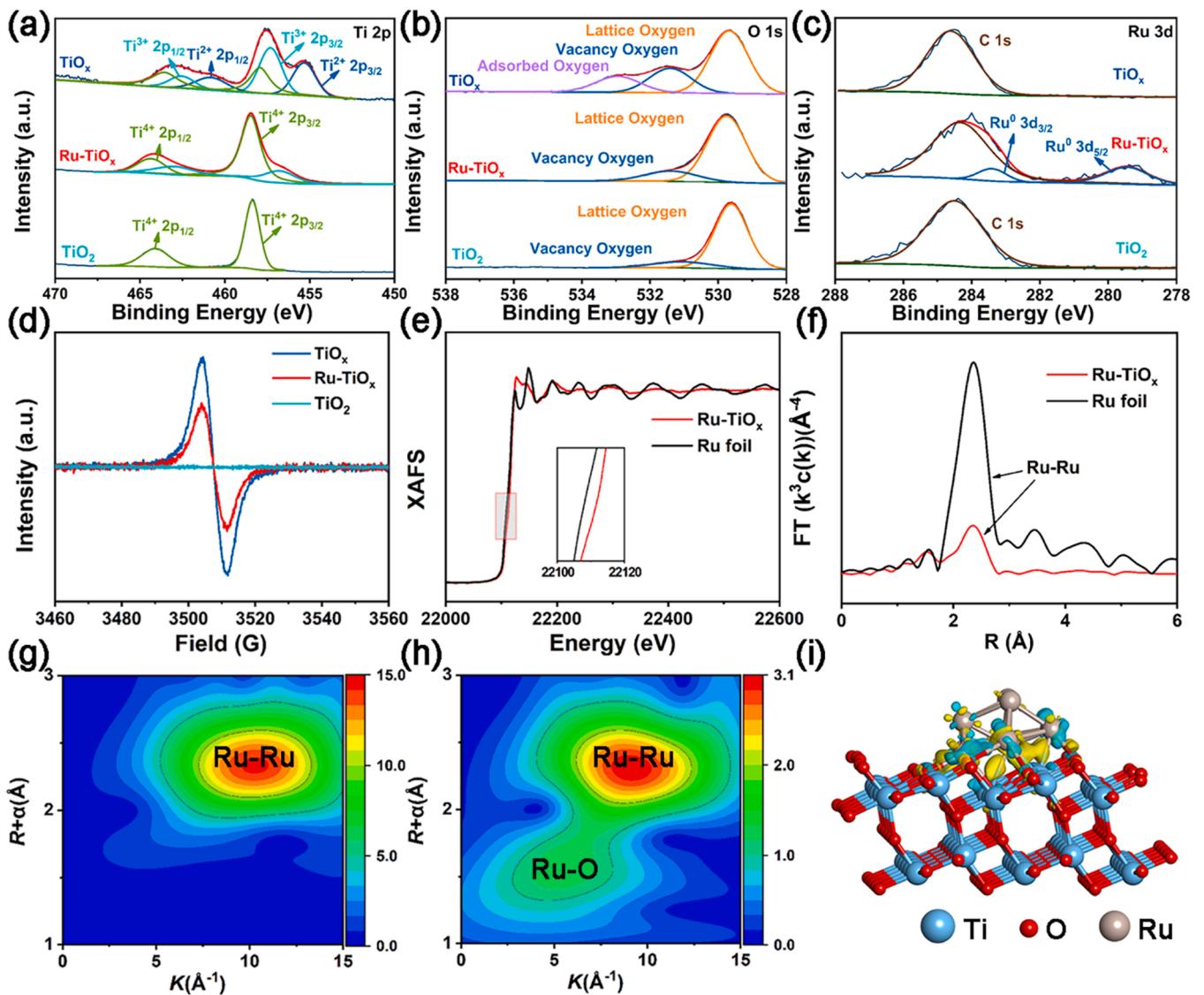


Fig. 2. XPS spectra of (a) Ti 2p, (b) O1s, and (c) Ru 3d for TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x and TiO₂. (d) Electron spin resonance spectra of TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x and TiO₂. (e) Normalized Ru K-edge XANES and (f) Fourier transform of k^3 -weighted Ru EXAFS of Ru foil and Ru-TiO_x. WT-EXAFS of the Ru foil (g) and Ru-TiO_x (h). (i) Difference charge density of Ru-TiO_x (the yellow region represents the electron accumulation, while the green region represents the electron depletion).

charge density of Ru-TiO_x verified this conclusion, as shown in Fig. 2i, the electron accumulation in TiO_x indicated that the electrons transfer from Ru to TiO_x occurred due to electronegativity difference [46]. The electron transfer also indicated the strong interaction between Ru and TiO_x, which had a positive effect on the catalytic reaction.

3.2. Evaluation of photothermal co-catalytic performance

In order to study the light absorption performance, the UV–Vis–NIR absorption spectra of Ru-TiO_x, TiO_x and TiO₂ were measured as shown in Fig. 3a. For pure TiO₂, only a significant absorption in ultraviolet region was observed. Compared with TiO₂, the TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x prepared by laser bombardment exhibited much stronger light absorption capacity in the full spectrum range from UV to NIR wavelength. The oxygen vacancies in TiO_x and the plasma resonance absorption of Ru nanoparticles contributed to the high light absorption capacity from Vis to the NIR region. It was noted that the slightly stronger absorption of TiO_x than Ru-TiO_x located in the UV region and a small range of Vis region may be because that the loading of Ru nanoparticles on the surface of TiO_x would hinder the light absorption of TiO_x. The oxygen-deficient structure still existed in Ru-TiO_x, resulting in its absorption

in the IR region being unaffected. The excellent photothermal conversion ability portended the advantages of CO₂ hydrogenation [47,48]. Due to the wide wavelength range of light absorption, a strong photothermal effect was expected. The temperature profile of TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x and TiO₂ under Xenon lamp at 1 W/cm² was then tested in Fig. 3b. The measured temperature of TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x reached 259.3 °C and 276.2 °C within 1000 s, which were much higher than that of TiO₂ (84.4 °C) under the same illumination condition. In addition, the higher photothermal temperature of Ru-TiO_x compared with that of TiO_x was mainly due to the synergistic effects of TiO_x and plasma resonance absorption of Ru nanoparticles [49,50]. The according infrared thermal image captured for TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x, and TiO₂ under Xenon lamp illumination in Fig. 3c also proved the same conclusion. Especially for Ru-TiO_x, the high light-induced temperature demonstrated its potential for photothermal catalysis application, which could rapidly convert the absorbed light energy into thermal energy [51,52].

In order to further explore the role of light during the photothermal catalysis, the thermal effects of TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x and TiO₂ were tested under Xenon lamps with different light intensities (0.5, 1, 1.5 and 2 W/cm²) and different wavelengths (UV, Vis and IR irradiation). In Fig. 3d, the temperature of TiO₂ changed insignificantly under different light

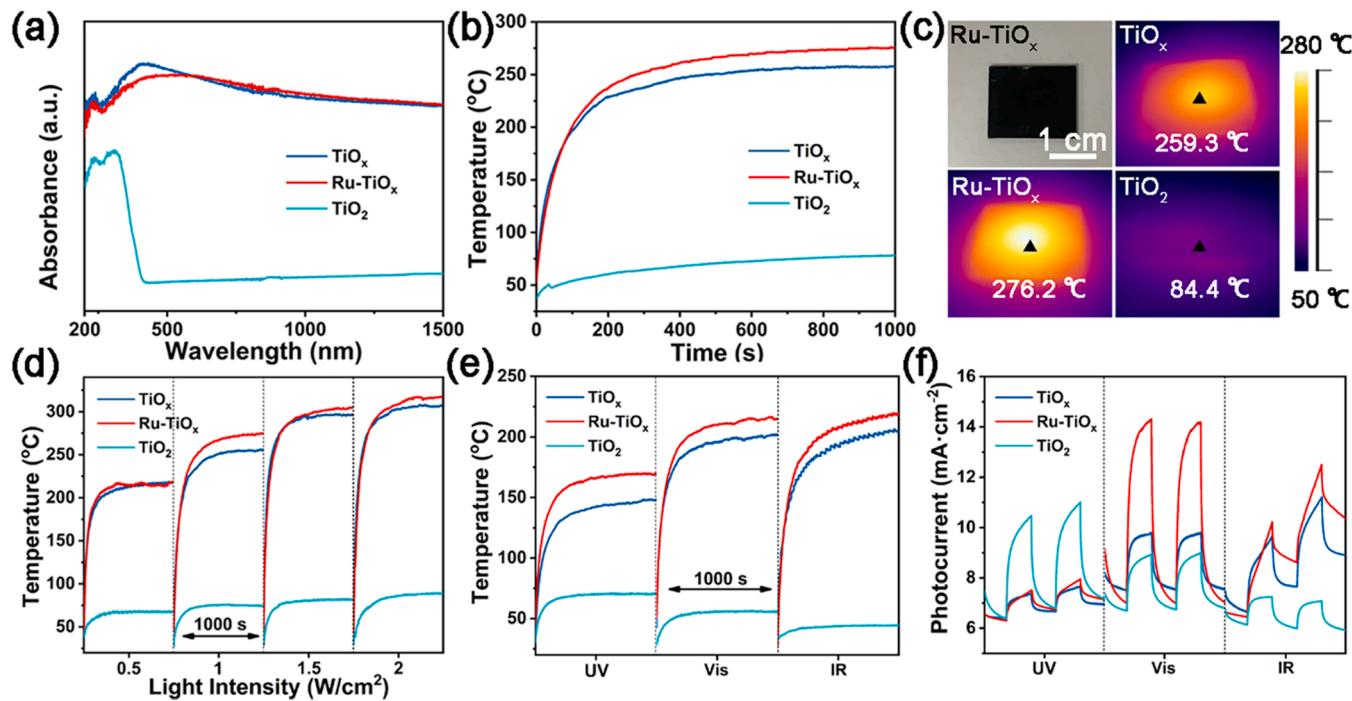


Fig. 3. (a) UV–Vis–NIR absorption spectra, (b) temperature profile, and (c) infrared thermal images of TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x, and TiO₂. (d) The temperature variation of the TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x and TiO₂ under Xenon lamp with different light intensities. The temperature variation (e) and PEC current responses (f) of TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x and TiO₂ under different light wavelengths.

intensities, with a maximum value of only 87.8 °C. For both of TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x, the temperature increased steadily with the increase of light intensity and could rapidly achieve the steady state, indicating the excellent photothermal conversion capacity was inseparable from the defective TiO_x. Furthermore, under the same Xenon lamp irradiation intensity of 1 W/cm², the photo-induced temperature changed at different wavelengths were monitored in Fig. 3e. TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x obtained higher temperatures in the visible region (202 °C and 212 °C) and infrared region (204.4 °C and 210 °C) than that in the UV region (148.4 °C and 163 °C). In a contrast, the UV region temperature (70 °C) of TiO₂ was a little bit higher than those of visible (55.8 °C) and infrared (42.2 °C) regions.

In order to further investigate the relationship between photothermal and photoelectric effects in different light regions, the verification was carried out by photocurrent tests (Fig. 3f), which was an efficient technology to evaluate the excitation of the photo-generated electron-hole pairs and characterize carrier separation. Firstly, TiO₂ produced a significantly stronger photocurrent response in the UV region than those in visible and infrared regions. Secondly, compared to TiO₂, TiO_x possessed weaker photocurrent in UV region and higher photocurrent in visible and infrared regions, implying that more hot electrons were produced by TiO_x. Thirdly, the Ru-TiO_x possessed the enhanced photocurrent response in the visible region, confirming the synergistic effect between oxygen vacancies in TiO_x and the plasma resonance of Ru nanoparticles. The above results indicated that the presence of defective TiO_x could induce the photothermal conversion effects under vis-infrared light irradiation, while the TiO₂ mainly induced the photoelectric conversion effect under UV light irradiation. It was worth noting that the overall photocurrent response showed a gradually increasing trend under IR illumination (Fig. S13d), this may be caused by the elevated electrolyte temperature. In addition, the increasing photocurrent under each light switch was corresponding to the energy transfer between intrinsic excited photoelectrons and hot electrons. In addition, the photoluminescence (PL) spectra (Fig. S14) were performed and proved that the loading of Ru could efficiently inhibit the recombination of electron-hole pairs to improve the

separation efficiency.

To reveal the advantages of Ru-TiO_x in the photothermal catalytic performance, the catalytic performance tests were conducted in closed reaction system under 1 W/cm² irradiation for different samples, including TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x, TiO₂, and Ru-TiO₂. To rigorously investigate the effect of oxygen vacancies on the photothermal catalytic performance, the Ru-TiO₂ was synthesized in the same way as Ru-TiO_x, just using defect-free TiO₂ as the substrate (Fig. S15). The curves of CH₄ production rate depending on the time taken were shown in Fig. S16. As shown, the CO product for TiO_x and CH₄ product for Ru-TiO_x were continuously generated over time. It was noteworthy that the yields of the products increased slowly within half an hour, but showed a trend of rapid increase after half an hour of irradiation, this was possible due to the exothermic nature of the Sabatier reaction. As shown in Fig. 4a, the TiO₂ and TiO_x were more inclined to produce CO (0.067 mmol/g/h and 0.306 mmol/g/h) under the same illumination conditions. This result was consistent with the reported conclusion that the selectivity of TiO_x for CO₂ reduction was CO [53]. After loading Ru onto TiO₂ and TiO_x, the high selectivity for CH₄ was implemented. The apparent selectivity change from CO to CH₄ indicated that Ru could serve as the active site for the hydrogenation reaction of CO generated from TiO_x during the photothermal catalysis process. As for Ru-TiO_x, the highest CH₄ yield reached 15.84 mmol/g/h, which was approximately 176 times more than that of Ru-TiO₂ (0.09 mmol/g/h), indicating that the oxygen vacancies played a positive role in promoting the photothermal catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation on account of the enhanced light absorption and photothermal conversion capacity. The temperature-dependent kinetic analysis of CH₄ production rate over TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x was performed. As shown in Fig. S17, the activation energy values of the overall reaction obtained from the Arrhenius plot were calculated to be 80.05 kJ mmol⁻¹ and 32.295 kJ mmol⁻¹ for TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x, respectively. The introduction of Ru could efficiently decrease the activation energy for Sabatier reaction. The elevated temperature through photothermal conversion had positive effect on the CO₂ conversion, which enhancing the diffusion of gas molecules and transfer of charge carriers. In addition, for TiO_x and TiO₂, the presence of oxygen vacancies in TiO_x could

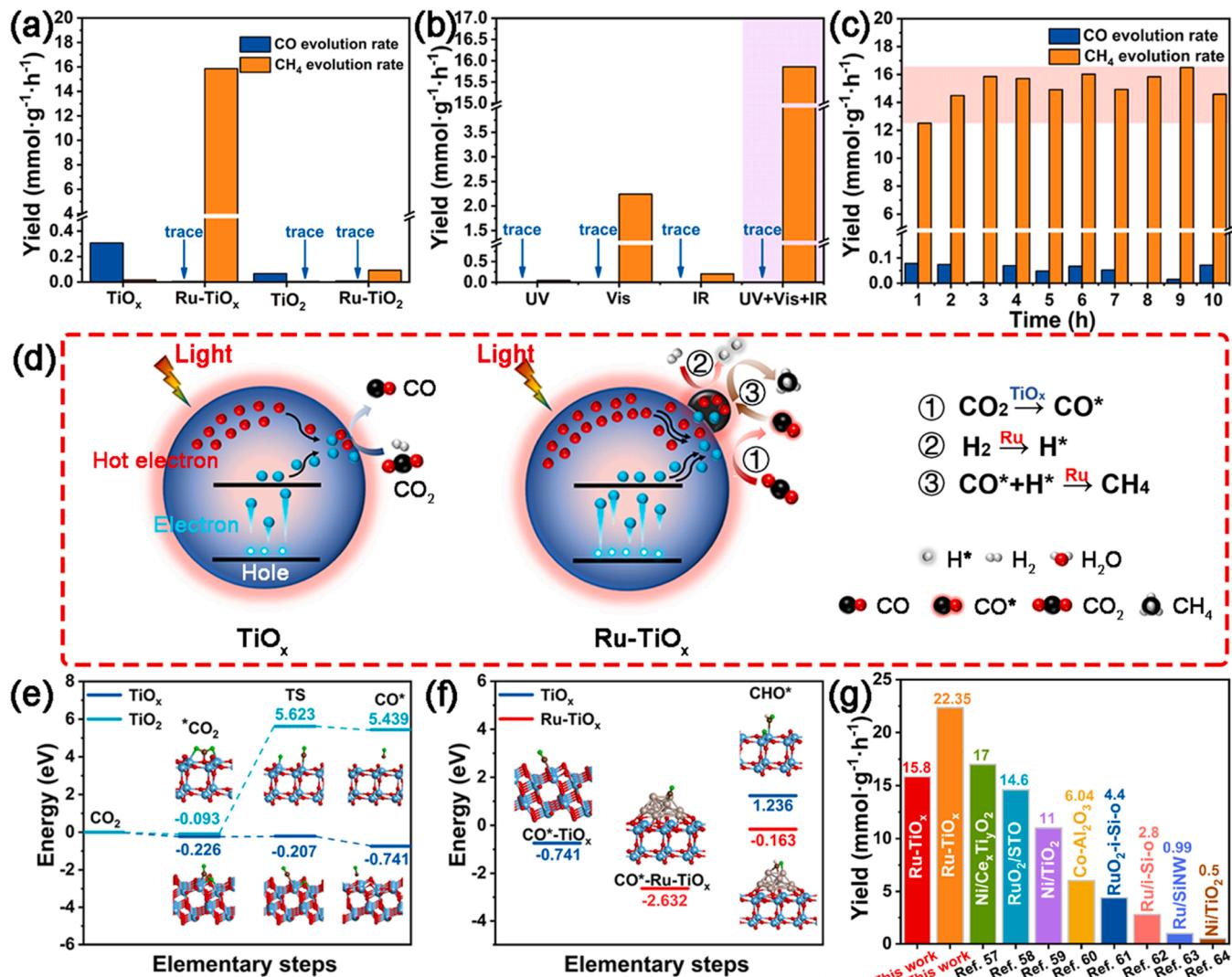


Fig. 4. (a) The yields of photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation for TiO_x, Ru-TiO_x, TiO₂, and Ru-TiO₂ under full-spectrum. (b) CH₄ and CO production rates of Ru-TiO_x under Xenon lamp with different light wavelengths. (c) Cyclic stability testing of Ru-TiO_x. (d) Schematic illustration of photothermal co-catalysis CO₂ methanation for TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x. (e) The calculated energy change from CO₂ to CO process on TiO₂ and TiO_x. (f) Optimized structure, the CO* adsorption, and the hydrogenation reaction energy change (ΔE_{ads}) of TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x. (g) Comparison of CH₄ yield in this work with other recently reported photothermal catalysts.

provide more active sites for CO₂ absorption, also contributing to the great difference in photothermal property existed in TiO_x and TiO₂. Therefore, it can be concluded that the superior photothermal performance towards CO₂ conversion can be attributed to the synergistic effect of improving the diffusion of gas molecules and providing more active sites for CO₂ absorption. ¹³CO₂ isotope tests were conducted to confirm the source of carbon products. The isotope-labeled ¹³CO₂ photothermal catalytic tests screened by GC-MS was shown in Fig. S18, obvious ¹³CH₄ signals were detected, confirming that the carbon products were mainly generated from ¹³CO₂ in the photothermal catalytic CO₂ reaction. In addition, with the increased light intensity from 0.5 to 2 W/cm², the CH₄ evolution rate of Ru-TiO_x could be further enhanced, which reached 22.35 mmol/g/h at 2 W/cm², as shown in Fig. S19.

To further explore the photothermal catalysis mechanism, the effect of different light wavelengths on the catalytic performance of Ru-TiO_x was characterized in Fig. 4b. The negligible CH₄ yield (0.047 mmol/g/h) of Ru-TiO_x under UV light irradiation was due to the relatively low photothermal temperature (163 °C). Although the temperatures of the Ru-TiO_x catalyst under visible light (212 °C) and infrared light (210 °C) were similar, the methane yield of 2.25 mmol/g/h under visible irradiation was much higher than that of 0.2 mmol/g/h under infrared

irradiation, indicating the key effect of photocatalysis. In addition, the cold bath was used to exclude the thermal effect during the catalysis process (Fig. S20). The significantly decreased CH₄ yields (only μmol/g/h) were detected in all conditions, indicating the essential role of temperature during the catalysis reaction (Fig. S21). The above results indicated the synergistic effect between photocatalysis and thermocatalysis for methane production under visible light irradiation. Meanwhile, after excluding thermal effect, the increased CO selectivity and decreased CH₄ selectivity of Ru-TiO_x were due to the degraded hydrogen activation at a relatively lower temperature [54]. More importantly, the catalytic performance of Ru-TiO_x under full spectrum (15.84 mmol/g/h, Fig. 4a) was much higher than that under visible illumination (2.25 mmol/g/h, Fig. 4b), which further demonstrated the synergistic mechanism between photocatalysis and thermocatalysis. The conventional thermocatalysis at the same temperature of photothermal co-catalysis (276 °C) was also performed (Fig. S22). As shown, the selectivity of CO₂ hydrogenation reaction for conventional thermocatalysis remained CH₄, further confirming the effect of Ru as the hydrogenation sites. Besides, the ultra-low CH₄ yield (0.133 mmol/g_{cat}/h) of conventional thermalcatalysis was far lower than that of photothermal co-catalytic performance (15.84 mmol/g_{cat}/h), implying that this

temperature (276 °C) was a little low to exceed the thermal-dynamic barrier for CO₂ methanation. This result demonstrated that the introduction of light could break the thermodynamic equilibrium limit and realized CO₂ methanation at lower temperatures. According to the literature[55], we speculated that the light irradiation accelerated H₂ dissociation and CO₂ activation via transferring light-induced photo-generated electrons and hot electrons to d orbital of Ru atom, thereby reducing the energy barrier of the thermal catalytic reaction. In Fig. 4c, the catalytic performance of Ru-TiO_x remained stable for 10 h under 1 W/cm² irradiation and the according CH₄ yield remained within the range of 12.5–16.5 mmol/g/h. In addition, after the 10 h cyclic stability testing, the morphology and structure of Ru-TiO_x had no obvious change, which were confirmed by SEM, XRD, XPS, TEM, UV-Vis-NIR and EPR results in Figs. S23–S26. The XRD (Fig. S23b) result displayed the diffraction peaks of TiO and Ti₃O, which was consistent with the phase composition of sample before the cycle stability test. The remaining oxygen vacancy peak and Ti³⁺ peak in XPS (Fig. S24) results combined with the EPR result (Fig. S25) could also reveal the preservation of the defective oxidation state. The lattice fringe of 0.20 nm attributed to (101) crystal plane of Ru remain existed. And through a statistical analysis of the particle size distribution of Ru nanoparticles from HRTEM images (Figs. S27 and S28), the diameter size of most of Ru nanoparticles still covered in the range of 2–3.5 nm as the same with that before cyclic stability test, indicating the stability of Ru nanoparticles. All these results demonstrated that the catalyst in our work maintained performance and structural stability over the extended cycle stability test. In addition, the decreased catalytic stability of TiO_x shown in Fig. S29 indicated the deactivation of TiO_x due to the unstable reactive oxygen species without Ru stabilization.

Based on the above results, the catalytic mechanism of photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ reduction over the TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x were illustrated in Fig. 4d. Firstly, CO₂ was initially adsorbed by the oxygen vacancies on the TiO_x. By heat of the photothermal conversion and photoelectric effects of TiO_x, the photo-generated electrons and hot electrons were simultaneously produced and transferred to the surface of TiO_x to decompose CO₂ into CO* and O*. If no Ru nanoparticles were decorated, CO was produced and desorbed on account of lack of hydrogenation sites (Fig. 4d I). When loading Ru on the surface of TiO_x (Fig. 4d II), on the one hand, CO* as the intermediate was more tendency to be adsorbed by Ru, and the transfer of CO* from TiO_x to Ru nanoparticles was favorable for higher CO₂ reduction activity. On the other hand, under the action of irradiation, H₂ was adsorbed on Ru nanoparticles and dissociated to H atoms, which continued to participate in the subsequent hydrogenation reaction. Namely, the Ru served as the hydrogenation sites, which activated H₂ and boosted CO* hydrogenation to produce CH₄ [56]. During this process, the photo-generated electrons and hot electrons worked together to achieve CO₂ reduction. Meanwhile, the elevated temperature through photothermal conversion had positive effect on the CO₂ conversion by enhancing the diffusion of gas molecules and transfer of charge carriers. Thus, the design-synthesized Ru-TiO_x exhibited a high CH₄ yield of 15.84 mmol/g/h and high CH₄ selectivity of 99.99% under full spectrum irradiation. For exploring the optimal matching between the oxygen vacancy content and the Ru loading, adjusting the loading amount of Ru (0.5 wt%, 2 wt% and 5 wt %) was performed and their corresponding yields of photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation were shown in Fig. S30, we found in the preliminary experiments that a smaller amount of Ru nanoparticle at 0.5 wt% loading resulted in a reduction in catalytic activity. While the Ru-TiO_x-2 wt% and Ru-TiO_x-5 wt% samples undergo a decrease in selectivity for methane. With the optimal Ru loading amount of 1 wt%, the highest CH₄ evolution rate and high selectivity were achieved. It may be because that a small loading amount of Ru could not provide sufficient CO₂ activation and hydrogenation active site, while an excessive loading amount of Ru may increase the size of prepared Ru nanoparticles due to the insufficient oxygen vacancy anchoring effect, as confirmed by the TEM in Fig. S31 the increased Ru nanoparticle size may

cause the decreased product selectivity by changing the reaction path.

In order to further verify the proposed photothermal co-catalytic mechanism, the first-principles density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed. From Fig. 4e, the adsorption of CO₂ on pure TiO₂ was weak ($E_{ads} = -0.093$ eV), and the free energy required for its decomposition into CO* and O* was 5.439 eV. For the TiO_x, the adsorption ability of CO₂ on the surface was improved ($E_{ads} = -0.226$ eV), and the free energy required for its decomposition into CO* and O* was greatly reduced (-0.741 eV), indicating that the introduction of oxygen vacancies could enhance the adsorption of CO₂ and greatly reduce the decomposition energy barrier. For exploring the selectivity change from CO to CH₄, Fig. 4f displayed the CO* adsorption and the hydrogenation reaction energy change (ΔE_{ads}) of TiO_x and Ru-TiO_x, respectively. As shown in Fig. 4f, the calculated adsorption energy of CO* for Ru-TiO_x was -2.632 eV, much larger than that for TiO_x, which suggested the adsorption of CO on Ru-TiO_x surface was more stable. As a consequence, after the decomposition of CO₂ to CO* and O* from TiO_x, the CO* was more tendency to transfer to Ru sites. In addition, it could be seen that for TiO_x, the free energy of CO* hydrogenation to CHO* was 1.236 eV, while for the Ru-TiO_x, its free energy became -0.163 eV, indicating the introduction of Ru could significantly reduce the energy barrier for CO hydrogenation. These results demonstrated that Ru as the hydrogenation active sites contributed to the selectivity change for CH₄.

For evaluating the photothermal co-catalytic performance of Ru-TiO_x, the CH₄ yields of recently reported photothermal catalysts were summarized in Fig. 4g and Table S3. The CH₄ yields of 15.84 mmol/g/h with 99.99% of CH₄ selectivity at 1 W/cm² and 22.35 mmol/g/h at 2 W/cm² for Ru-TiO_x without external heating and pressure were better than or comparable to the reported catalysts, such as Ni/Ce_xTi_yO₂ (17 mmol/g/h) [57], RuO₂/STO (14.6 mmol/g/h) [58], Ni/TiO₂ (11 mmol/g/h) [59], Co/Al₂O₃ (6.04 mmol/g/h) [60], RuO₂/3D silicon (4.4 mmol/g/h) [61], Ru inverted silicon opal photonic crystal (Ru/i-Si-o) (2.8 mmol/g/h) [62], Ru/Si NW (0.99 mmol/g/h) [63] and Ni/TiO₂ (0.504 mmol/g/h) [64].

3.3. Photothermal co-catalysis system under the outdoor sunlight

To demonstrate the practical applicability of Ru-TiO_x, the photothermal co-catalytic CO₂ hydrogenation was conducted by using the outdoor sunlight as light source and heat source. The photothermal co-catalysis device composed of closed quartz reactor, aluminum silicate fiber wool, and the linear fresnel len (25 cm × 25 cm) was constructed (Fig. 5a), where the linear fresnel len was used for the sunlight concentrator. Infrared thermal images showed that the Ru-TiO_x as catalyst reached 203.2 °C when the sunlight was focused on the catalyst (Fig. S33). The aluminum silicate fiber wool wrapped around the reactor was used for maintaining the temperature of the chamber. By using H₂/CO₂ gas mixture with a ratio of 4:1 as the reactive gases. The activity and stability of photothermal co-catalysis CO₂ hydrogenation were conducted at 11:00–12:00 every day for seven consecutive days. The according weather and temperature at that time were recorded in inset of Fig. 5b. When the weather was cloudless from Sunday to Thursday, the CH₄ production rates basically stayed at about 0.95–1.12 mmol/g/h. When the weather was cloudy on Friday, the photothermal co-catalytic performance decreased, but it still achieved a methane yield of about 0.54 mmol/g/h. The high photothermal co-catalytic performance of CO₂ hydrogenation confirmed that the Ru-TiO_x synthesized from laser bombardment had the potential for practical application.

4. Conclusions

A facile and effective laser bombardment method to generate TiO_x nanoparticles with oxygen vacancies was developed. The TiO_x nanoparticles as efficient carrier could uniformly load ultrafine Ru nanoparticles with the assistance of photothermal reduction. The defective

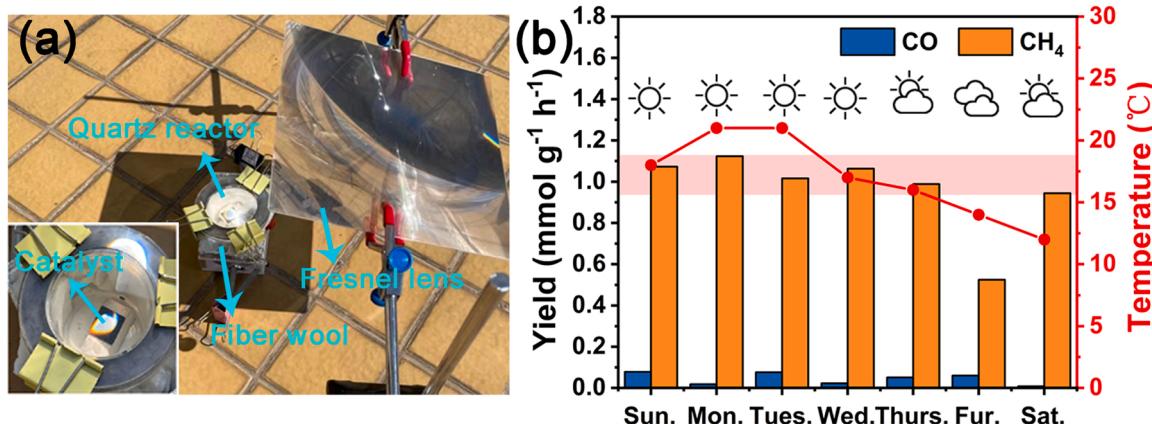


Fig. 5. (a) Illustration photograph of constructed photothermal co-catalysis device using the outdoor sunlight. (b) The recorded day's yields of CH₄ and CO for Ru-TiO_x in consecutive week (11:00–12:00 a.m.).

TiO_x nanoparticles had the functions of both photothermal conversion and photoelectric conversion, which realized the reduction of CO₂ into CO*. And then Ru nanoparticles acted as the hydrogenation site to adsorb intermediate CO* and activate hydrogen. The synergistic effect between the deoxidation active sites of TiO_x and hydrogenation active sites of Ru realized a high CH₄ yield (15.84 mmol/g/h) and selectivity (99.99%) for design-synthesized Ru-TiO_x under full spectrum irradiation. Furthermore, we performed the photothermal co-catalysis of CO₂ reduction to methane under the outdoor sunlight, an excellent catalytic activity (about 1 mmol/g/h for cloudless days) and stability (at 11:00–12:00 for seven consecutive days) in real situations were demonstrated, verifying the practical applicability of our system.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Tianjiao Dong: Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Visualization, Formal analysis, Investigation. **Xiaoyu Liu:** Data curation, Methodology, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Zhenfei Tang:** Supervision, Validation. **Haifeng Yuan:** Supervision, Validation. **Di Jiang:** Supervision, Validation. **Yijie Wang:** Supervision, Validation. **Zhen Liu:** Supervision, Validation. **Xiaoli Zhang:** Supervision, Validation. **Shifeng Huang:** Supervision, Validation. **Hong Liu:** Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation. **Lili Zhao:** Data curation, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Weijia Zhou:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

The authors do not have permission to share data.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2022.122176.

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